

AperTO - Archivio Istituzionale Open Access dell'Università di Torino

## Evaluation of an eventual ecotoxicity induced by textile effluents using a battery of biotests

### This is the author's manuscript

*Original Citation:*

*Availability:*

This version is available <http://hdl.handle.net/2318/1521019> since 2016-06-30T10:43:57Z

*Published version:*

DOI:10.1007/s11356-015-4862-3

*Terms of use:*

Open Access

Anyone can freely access the full text of works made available as "Open Access". Works made available under a Creative Commons license can be used according to the terms and conditions of said license. Use of all other works requires consent of the right holder (author or publisher) if not exempted from copyright protection by the applicable law.

(Article begins on next page)

This is the author's final version of the contribution published as:

Ahmed Bedoui; Valeria Tigini; Kamel Ghedira; Giovanna Cristina Varese; Leila Chekir Ghedira. Evaluation of an eventual ecotoxicity induced by textile effluents using a battery of biotests. ENVIRONMENTAL SCIENCE AND POLLUTION RESEARCH INTERNATIONAL. 22 (21) pp: 16700-16708.  
DOI: 10.1007/s11356-015-4862-3

The publisher's version is available at:

<http://link.springer.com/content/pdf/10.1007/s11356-015-4862-3>

When citing, please refer to the published version.

Link to this full text:

<http://hdl.handle.net/2318/1521019>

# Evaluation of an eventual ecotoxicity induced by textile effluents using a battery of biotests

- [Ahmed Bedoui](#),
- [Valeria Tigni](#),
- [Kamel Ghedira](#),
- [Giovanna Cristina Varese](#),
- [Leila Chekir Ghedira](#)

DOI: 10.1007/s11356-015-4862-3

## Abstract

Textile industry is considered as one of the important factors of the economic growth in Tunisia. However, this prominent role has certainly some drawbacks mainly represented by the huge amounts of textile wastewaters generated that become a real menace to nature. Many previous studies showed the purifying potential of some activated sludge and bacteria (*Pseudomonas putida*) to decolourize textile effluents. However, in many cases, decolourization of wastewaters is not necessary associated with detoxification, generating a real risk for the ecosystem in general. We evaluated in this work the induced toxicity of a textile effluent before and after its treatment with activated sludge followed by *P. putida*, using a battery of biotests. This study proved the detoxifying power of the activated sludge according to most of ecotoxicity tests. The treatment with *P. putida* did not improve the quality of the effluent; on the contrary, it could increase its toxicity. *Daphnia magna* and *Raphidocelis subcapitata* appear to be the most sensitive organisms in assessing eventual toxicity caused by this kind of wastewaters.

## Keywords

Textile effluent Activated sludge *P. putida* Ecotoxicological tests *D. magna* *R. subcapitata*

Responsible editor: Cinta Porte

## Introduction

At the global level, textile industry represents an important factor of economic growth for many countries. This sector has always been to Tunisia, one of the most interesting of the domestic industry, because of its quality of products, the number of generated job positions and its high export potential as the fifth European Union supplier clothing in 2010 (Ministry of Industry, Energy and Mines). The textile industry, particularly dyeing and finishing phases, consumes a wide range of chemicals that are very harmful for humans (Ben Mansour et al. [2009a](#)) and certainly for environment (Banat et al. [1996](#)). In this context, several attempts have been made at the national and international scale by the concerned ministries or industries to set centres which treat water coming from different production lines, prior to discharge into nature (river, ground, sea...). However, the heterogeneity of the composition of products used in dyeing (dyes, salts, additives, detergents and surfactants) makes it extremely difficult to achieve satisfactory wastewater quality levels, imposed by the international environmental standards. Conventional physical and chemical techniques of treatment such as activated carbon, membrane filtration and application of ozone

often still non-specific, weakly effective (O'Neill et al. [2000](#); Silveira et al. [2009](#)) or very expensive (Robinson et al. [2001](#); Jadhav et al. [2007](#); Ben Mansour et al. [2012](#)).

Recently, many attempts have been made to obtain higher wastewater quality by replacing conventional methods currently applied (physical or chemical) with biological treatments which are more effective and less expensive (Dogruel et al. [2006](#); Lofrano et al. [2013](#); Phugare et al. [2011](#)). That is why an increasing number of textile industries through the world adopted biological treatment of wastewaters before the discharge in the environment. Using activated sludge often allows the total decolourization of effluents, resulting from tannery processes and significantly decreases their chemical oxygen demand (COD) values ("Société Industrielle de Textile" SITEX [2012](#)).

Moreover, since recently, a strain of *Pseudomonas putida* mt-2 has been described to be efficient in decolourization and detoxification of several effluents (Silveira et al. [2009](#); Ben Mansour et al. [2011](#), [2012](#), [2013](#)), we studied the effect of the combined treatment (sludge and then *P. putida*) on the toxicity of these industrial effluents.

This work aims to evaluate the efficiency of a combined treatment, by both an industrial activated sludge and *P. putida*, of a textile effluent sample, compared to that obtained only with activated sludge. We determined the toxicity of each sample, using a battery of seven ecotoxicological tests, including organisms belonging to different trophic levels: (i) aquatic organisms, which were selected for their high sensitivity towards different pollutants of textile effluents as reported by the literature, the alga *Raphidocelis subcapitata* (Sponza [2002](#)), the aquatic plant *Lemna minor* (Casieri et al. [2008](#); Tigini et al. [2011](#); Malachová et al. [2013](#)), two crustacean species *Daphnia magna* (da Silva et al. [2012](#); Verma [2008](#)) and *Artemia franciscana* (Libralato et al. [2010](#); Matthews [1995](#)) and the bacterium *Vibrio fischeri* (Casieri et al. [2008](#); Tigini et al. [2011](#); Malachová et al. [2013](#)) and (ii) dicotyledonous plants, *Cucumis sativus* and *Lepidium sativum* (Tigini et al. [2011](#)), which are important bioindicators of treated wastewater safety aimed to be reused for irrigation, in countries having problems of lack of water. We based the choice of these tests on the work of Tigini et al. ([2011](#)), who selected the most sensitive organisms in the treatment of tannery effluents.

## Materials and methods

### Effluent samples

Three effluent samples were studied ( $E_1$ ,  $E_2$  and  $E_3$ ). Two effluent samples  $E_1$  (containing Reactive Blue HEGX, Reactive Yellow S3-R and Direct Black VB) and  $E_2$  were kindly provided by a textile industrial company located in Ksar Hellal (eastern centre of Tunisia) in April 2012.  $E_1$  was sampled from the homogenization tank in the wastewater treatment plant (WWTP) of a textile company.  $E_2$  was sampled after the activated sludge was used in the same WWTP.  $E_3$  was obtained from the treatment of  $E_2$  with *P. putida* mt-2 that revealed to be effective in the treatment of dyes and effluents as described by Ben Mansour ([2011](#), [2012](#), [2013](#)). The pH, COD, biochemical oxygen demand (BOD) and conductivity of the tested effluents are summarized in Table [1](#).

Table 1

## Physico-chemical characteristics of the textile effluents

	E <sub>1</sub>	E <sub>2</sub>	E <sub>3</sub>
pH	12.54	8.34	7.95
COD (mg/L)	2200	160	2180
BOD (mg/L)	1200	28	223
Conductivity (μS/cm)	6662	6589	6630

## *P. putida* culturing and biodegradation process

The *P. putida* mt-2 (DSM 3931) strain used for the decolorization assays was obtained from the Deutsche Sammlung von Mikroorganismen und Zellkulturen GmbH (Braunschweig, Germany). *P. putida* was grown at 30 °C in 250-mL flasks, containing 50 mL of medium, under rotary shaking incubation at 200 rpm. The growth medium contained yeast extract (10 g/L), peptone (3 g/L) and glucose (5 g/L). After cultivation of *P. putida* mt-2 on an enzymatic inductive medium (nutrient broth supplemented with 10 % of textile wastewater), the exponential phase culture (~1.5 g/L of dry cells) was centrifuged (3500 rpm for 10 min), then, cells were harvested and transferred into a second flask (100 mL in a 500-mL flask) containing only effluent. Biodegradation of textile effluents was conducted in flasks at 30 °C under oxygenated condition assured by agitation (200 rpm) and continuous air injection. After incubation of *P. putida* with effluent mt-2 during 24 h, the supernatant was obtained by centrifugation (3500 rpm, 10 min, 4 °C) for being used further in toxicity studies.

## Ecotoxicity tests

### Alga test

The alga test was performed according to the standard UNI EN ISO 8692:2005 (ISO [2005](#)) using a monospecies culture of *R. subcapitata* (Korshikov) Nygaard, Komárek, J. Kristiansen & O.M. Skulberg (ex *Selenastrum capricornutum* Prinz). The test was performed in triplicate, in 24 multiwell plates, with a working volume of 2.5 mL per well (culture media composition and final concentration were mentioned in [Appendix](#)) and with at least six sample dilutions as described by De Schepper et al. ([2010](#)). The abiotic control (effluent without algal inoculum) was performed with one repetition. The biotic control (algal without effluent) was performed with six repetitions. After 72 h of incubation at 23 °C under 8000-lx light intensity, well samples were homogenized, in order to resuspend the algal cells, and their absorbances were spectrophotometrically measured at 633 nm (TECAN infinite M200, Austria). Since the presence of residual concentration of bacteria *P. putida*, coming from the treatment of E<sub>3</sub> interfered with the spectrophotometer measurements. The sample was previously filtered with a 0.2-μm filter. Absorbance values were converted into algae concentrations, thanks to a linear regression line previously plotted. Results were plotted on a dose–effect chart.

### *L. minor* test

This test evaluates the effect on the growth of an aquatic plant, *L. minor* L. The test was performed in triplicate in 250-mL glass beakers, with a working volume of 150 mL and with a 1/15 diluted sample in 1/10 modified Steinberg medium ([Appendix](#)) according to the standard ISO SO/WD 20079 (ISO [2001](#)). Distilled water added with 1/10 modified Steinberg medium was used as a control. Ten fronds of *L. minor* (two or three fronds per colony) of similar size were used as inoculum. The test was carried out in a climatic exposure test cabinet, calibrated at 25 °C, with

continuous light (8000 lx), for 7 days. At the end of the experiment, frond number and plant dry weight were used to calculate the growth inhibition rate with respect to the control average according to standard procedures

### **Phytotoxicity tests**

Two dicotyledonous plants, *C. sativus* L. and *L. sativum* L., were used for phytotoxicity tests, according to the standard method UNICHIM N.1651 (ISO [2003](#)). The seeds (90 % germination warranty) were purchased from Ingegnoli S.p.A. (Milan, Italy).

For both species, ten seeds were placed in 9-cm Petri dishes, containing 5 mL of the tested sample and a filter paper (Whatman No. 1). The control was performed in four replicates, using distilled water. The seeds were incubated for 72 h in the dark at 25 °C. At the end of the test, the germinated seeds were counted, and root elongation was measured according to standard procedures.

### **D. magna test**

The test was carried out according to the UNI EN ISO 6341: [2012](#) using *D. magna* Straus (Cladocera, Crustacea) (ISO [2012](#)). The test was performed in 25-mL glass beakers with a working volume of 20 mL, using at least six dilutions in freshwater standard solution ([Appendix](#)) of each effluent. Each dilution was incubated with five animals in four replicates. Control (freshwater without effluent) was performed with four repetitions. Immobile animals were counted after 24 h, and the response was given as percentage of mobile animals with respect to the control. Results were plotted on a dose–effect chart.

### **A. franciscana test**

*A. franciscana* test was performed by means of miniaturized kit (ARTOXKIT M) purchased from Ecotox LDS (Cornaredo, MI, Italy) according to the ECOTOXICOLOGICAL METHOD 8060 of APAT-IRSA in [2003](#). Brine shrimp cysts were hatched in standard seawater at 25 °C and constant lighting (3000–4000 lx) for 30 h. The bioassay was performed in a 24 multiwell test plate. Ten instars II–III larvae were incubated in 1 mL of sample in each well, at 25 °C in darkness. Larval mortality was estimated after 24 h by counting the dead larvae (i.e., those which exhibited no movement, during 10-s observation). Serial dilutions of each effluent sample were assayed (100, 50, 25, 12.5, 6.3 and 3.1 %). Three replicates per dilution were considered. Results were plotted on a dose–effect chart.

### **Luminescent bacteria test**

Luminescent bacteria tests were performed according to the standard UNI EN ISO 11348-3, using the Microtox system (Microtox Model 500; Microbics Corp., USA) with an automatic record of the luminescence (ISO [2007](#)). Freeze-dried marine luminescent bacteria (*V. fischeri* strain NRRLB-11177) were bought from Ramcon A/S (Birkerød, Denmark). All dose–response curves were plotted with eight effluent dilutions, each in duplicate and with four controls. The luminescence intensity in all cuvettes was measured before and 15 min after addition of the wastewater samples. Automatic colour correction was performed when necessary. Toxicity was expressed as the effective concentration that inhibits the bacterial growth by 50 % (EC<sub>50</sub>) by means of the probit statistical model, as the toxicological units which corresponds to 100/EC<sub>50</sub>, as the lowest observed effect concentration (LOEC) and finally as the no observed effect concentration (NOEC).

## Synthetic index determination

The outputs of ecotoxicity tests that allowed calculating of  $EC_{50}$  were condensed with a synthetic index developed by UNICHIM N. 1651 (2003) (Tigini et al. 2011). The method allows the comparison of the outputs of batteries, in which the same tests are performed, by calculating the toxicity score of the battery (BTS) as the mean of the relative toxicity of each test ( $RT_{\text{endpoint}}$ ). These last values are expressed as a percentage, as follows:

$$RT_{\text{endpoint}} = 100 - 100 \cdot [\log(C \cdot EC_x) \cdot R \cdot S]_{\text{max}} - [\log(C \cdot EC_x) \cdot R \cdot S]_{\text{endpoint}} / [\log(C \cdot EC_x) \cdot R \cdot S]_{\text{max}}$$

where  $C$  is a statistical corrective ( $C = 2$  if the  $EC_x$  is higher than 100 %;  $C = 1$  if the  $EC_x$  and its 95 % confidence limits are lower than 100 %),  $S$  is a score depending on the considered endpoint (mortality = 8, bioluminescence = 7, development = 6, reproduction = 5, growth = 4, genotoxicity = 3, mutagenicity = 2, behaviour = 1), and  $R$  is the rank of toxic concentrations, and it is assigned from the lowest concentration to the highest one.

Moreover, the risk score of the battery (BRS), expressed as a percentage, has been calculated according the following formula:

$$BRS = \text{mean of the } RT_{\text{endpoint}} \cdot [(\sum RT_{\text{endpoint}} + \text{consistency}) / \sqrt{N}] / (\sum RT_{\text{endpoint}} / \sqrt{N})$$

(2)

where  $N$  is the number of total endpoints; consistency is the half of total endpoints to which non-significant endpoints are subtracted. The consistency indicates the agreement rate among different endpoints: it is high (positive value) if all tests give results in agreement with each other; on the contrary, it is low (negative value) if the tests are discordant. The role of the consistency is to increase or decrease the risk score, according to the number of significant endpoints.

Moreover, the relevance of the battery has been calculated according to the following formula:

$$\text{Total relevance \%} = 100 \cdot (S_{\text{mean}}) / 8$$

(3)

The BTS is converted in a scale based on the expert judgment as follows:  $BTS \leq 5\%$  = negligible toxicity;  $5\% < BTS \leq 20\%$ , consistency  $\leq 0$  = moderate toxicity;  $5\% < BTS \leq 20\%$ , consistency  $> 0$  = high toxicity;  $BTS > 20\%$  = very high toxicity; and  $BTS > 50\%$  = extremely high toxicity. As well, the risk score is converted in the following scale:  $BRS \leq 5\%$  = negligible risk,  $5\% < BRS < 10\%$  = moderate risk,  $5\% < BRS < 20\%$  = high risk,  $BRS > 20\%$  = very high risk and  $BRS > 50\%$  = extremely high risk.

Eventually, this method allows the calculation of the  $EC_x$  and its confidence limits for the battery as follows:

$$\text{Battery } EC_x = 10^{(\text{mean}(\log EC_x))}$$

(4)

$$\text{Battery } L_{\text{low}} = 10^{(\text{mean}(\log \text{ of the lower confidence limit}))}$$

(5)

$$\text{Battery } L_{\text{up}} = 10^{(\text{mean}(\log \text{ of the upper confidence limit}))}$$

(6)

Only the tests showing a significant toxicity (i.e., calculable  $EC_x$ ) contribute to the estimation of the battery  $EC_x$ .



## Statistical analysis

EC<sub>50</sub> and its confidence limits of each ecotoxicity test were calculable using a probit statistical model. Student's *t* test was used to compare the efficacy of each treatment vs. control. Difference was considered significant when  $P < 0.05$ .

## Results

### Ecotoxicity tests

The toxicity obtained when exposing *L. minor*, *C. sativus* and *L. sativum* to E<sub>1</sub>, E<sub>2</sub> and E<sub>3</sub> was expressed as growth inhibition percentage with respect to the control (without effluent) (Table 2). E<sub>1</sub> was the most toxic effluent towards *L. minor* regarding frond and biomass development, with growth inhibition percentage of 33.9 and 52.8 %, respectively. Inhibition rate decreases significantly when *L. minor* was exposed to the same effluent treated by the activated sludge (E<sub>2</sub>). Actually, the inhibition percentages obtained were 21.1 and 10.14 % for fronds and biomass development, respectively. Results obtained with E<sub>3</sub> did not show any considerable difference relatively to those obtained with E<sub>2</sub> effluent. The inhibition percentage was 21.3 % for frond number, while any inhibition percentage was shown for biomass development (Table 2).

Inhibition percentages resulting from the exposure of *L. minor*, *L. sativum* and *C. sativus* to effluents

	Effluent 1	Effluent 2	Effluent 3
<i>L. minor</i> frond number	33.9 ± 4.9**	21.1 ± 5.8*	21.3 ± 9.2*
<i>L. minor</i> biomass development	52.7 ± 25.0*	10.1 ± 4.2	NI
<i>L. sativum</i> germination	100 ± 0***	20 ± 1.6*	17.5 ± 1.1***
<i>L. sativum</i> root elongation	100 ± 0***	91.2 ± 0.6***	91.3 ± 0.4***
<i>C. sativus</i> germination	45.7 ± 0.7***	22.9 ± 6.0**	25.7 ± 20.5
<i>C. sativus</i> root elongation	96.1 ± 0.3***	77 ± 1.2***	74.3** ± 4.1

NI no growth inhibition was showed

Significant difference obtained with \* $P < 0.01$ ; \*\* $P < 0.001$ ; \*\*\* $P < 0.0001$

Germination and root elongation of *L. sativum* were totally inhibited, with respect to the control, when the plant was exposed to E<sub>1</sub>. Their inhibition slightly decreases; when the species was exposed to E<sub>2</sub>, inhibition rates were 20.0 and 91.2 %, respectively, and when exposed to E<sub>3</sub>, inhibition rates were 17.5 and 91.3 %, respectively (Table 2).

*C. sativus* seems to be less sensitive to the toxicity induced by E<sub>1</sub> (45.7 and 96.1 % for germination and root elongation, respectively) compared to that of *L. sativum*, which was totally inhibited. On the contrary, results obtained by the exposition of *C. sativus* to E<sub>2</sub> and E<sub>3</sub> effluents confirmed those obtained by *L. sativum* (Table 2).



*D. magna* revealed a very high sensitivity towards E<sub>1</sub> ecotoxicity (Fig. 1). Daphnids exposed to over than 10 % E<sub>1</sub> exhibited 100 % mortality, and the estimated EC<sub>50</sub> and toxic units (TU) were 137.0 % and 0.73, respectively. This high toxicity totally disappeared when animals were exposed to E<sub>2</sub>. Indeed, this effluent did not cause any mortality even when animals were exposed to a not diluted effluent (Fig. 1). Instead, E<sub>3</sub> exhibited a high toxicity towards *D. magna*. In fact, daphnids exposed to over than 75 % E<sub>3</sub> exhibited 100 % mortality and the estimated EC<sub>50</sub> and TU were 61.5 % and 1.6, respectively.

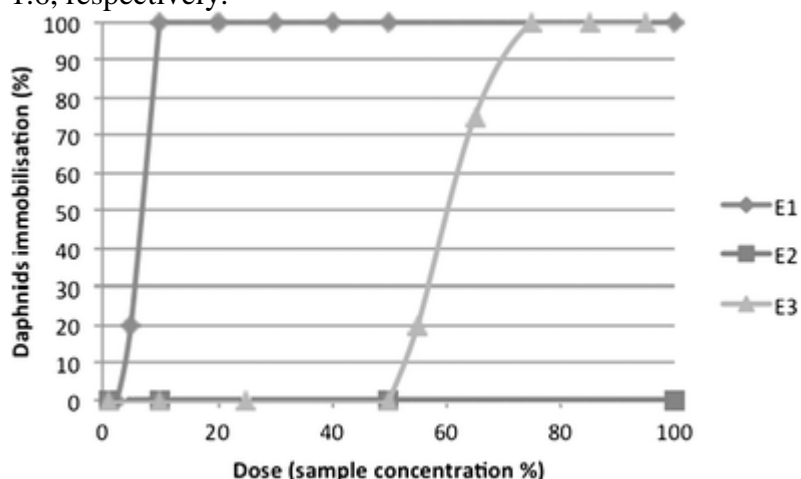


Fig. 1

Percentage of *Daphnia magna* immobilisation effect caused by effluents E<sub>1</sub>, E<sub>2</sub> and E<sub>3</sub>. E<sub>1</sub> effluent 1, E<sub>2</sub> effluent 2, E<sub>3</sub> effluent 3

*A. franciscana* revealed the highest rate of toxicity with 40.0 % of larvae immobilisation exposed to E<sub>1</sub> 50 % effluent dilution. This toxicity totally disappeared when animals were exposed to E<sub>2</sub>, than slightly increased when exposed to E<sub>3</sub> (6.7 % immobilisation) at the same dilution rate. For none of the wastewater, it was possible to calculate the EC<sub>50</sub> because toxicity was always lower than 50 % (Fig. 2).

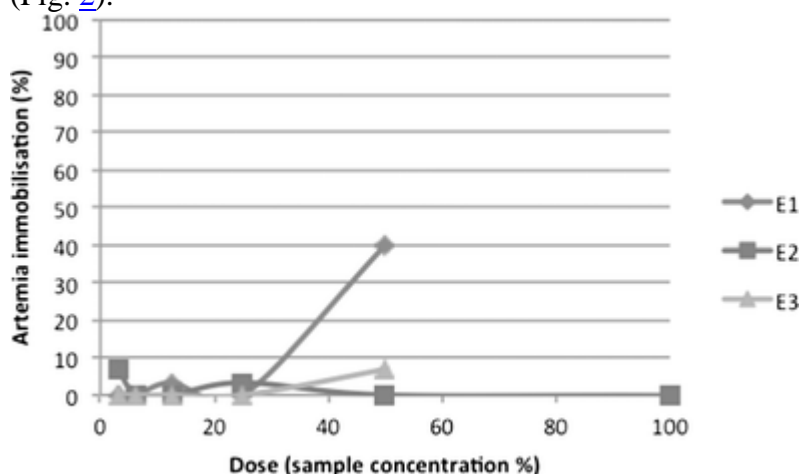


Fig. 2

Percentage of *Artemia franciscana* immobilisation effect caused by effluents E<sub>1</sub>, E<sub>2</sub> and E<sub>3</sub>

Toxicity of the tested effluents was also evaluated against *V. fischeri*. The results of Microtox test are reported in Table 3. Toxicity of E<sub>1</sub> effluent was determined after automatic correction because of the intensity of its colour: it was the most toxic effluent with an EC<sub>50</sub> of 3.0 % and TU<sub>50</sub> value of 33.1. Effluent treated by activated sludge (E<sub>2</sub>) did not exhibit any toxicity towards the bacterium, whereas E<sub>3</sub> showed an EC<sub>50</sub> of 8.2 % and TU<sub>50</sub> of 12.2 (Table 3).

Table 3

Toxicity of effluents against *V. fischeri* expressed as EC<sub>50</sub>, TU, NOEC and LOEC

	E <sub>1</sub>	E <sub>2</sub>	E <sub>3</sub>
EC <sub>50</sub>	3.0	nd	8.2
TU	33.1	nd	12.2
NOEC	0.3	nd	0.8
LOEC	0.9	nd	2.6

EC<sub>50</sub> the effective concentration that inhibits 50 % of the bacterial growth, TU the toxicological units = 100/EC<sub>50</sub>, LOEC the lowest observed effect concentration, NOEC no observed effect concentration

Toxicity results using the alga are reported in Fig. 3. E<sub>1</sub> was the most toxic sample towards *R. subcapitata*, with an EC<sub>50</sub> of 8.7 % (TU = 11.5) and a growth inhibition percentage of 69.3 % at the highest testable dose (12.5 % v/v). The toxicity decreased when alga was exposed to E<sub>2</sub>, with an EC<sub>50</sub> of 45.8 % (TU = 2.2) and a growth inhibition percentage of 55.0 % at the highest testable dose (50 % v/v). Toxicity further decreased when alga was exposed to E<sub>3</sub> with an EC<sub>50</sub> of 83.6 % (TU = 1.2) and a growth inhibition percentage of 46.0 % at the highest testable dose (80 % v/v).

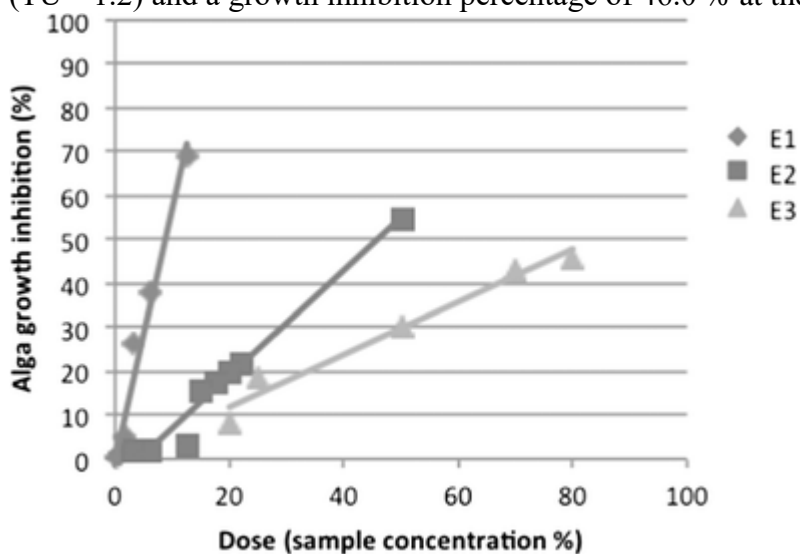


Fig. 3

Growth inhibition percentage of alga exposed to E<sub>1</sub>, E<sub>2</sub> and E<sub>3</sub>

### Synthetic index determination

The tests included in the synthetic index elaboration were *D. magna*, *A. franciscana*, *R. subcapitata* and *V. fischeri* (Fig. 4). According to the elaboration with the synthetic index, the E<sub>1</sub> effluent was characterized by extremely high toxicity and risk (both values were higher than 50 %). The consistency of the battery was 13 % and relevance was 90 %.

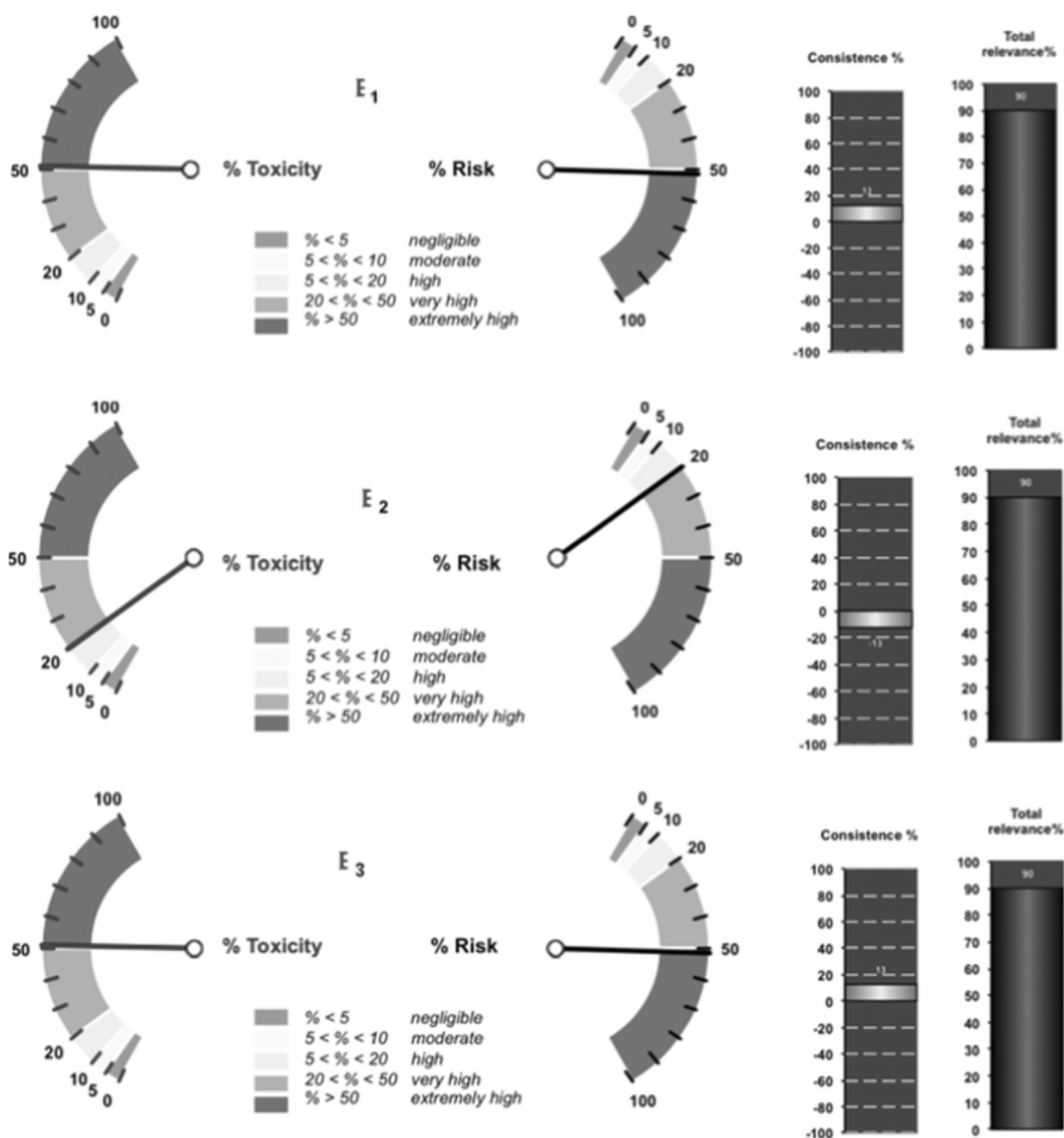


Fig. 4

Toxicity and risk scores, consistency and total relevance of the battery for E1, E2 and E3, according to the synthetic index. *BTS* toxicity score of the battery, *BRS* risk score of the battery

When applied to E<sub>2</sub>, the test battery decreased to very high toxicity and risk (value = 20 %), whereas E<sub>3</sub> increased again the toxicity and risk recorded by the battery to extremely high (higher than 50 %).

# Discussion

## Ecotoxicity of effluents and effectiveness of treatments

It appears from our results that untreated sample E<sub>1</sub> which was characterized by high values of COD (2200 mg/L) and pH (12.54), as well as an intense colour, was the most toxic effluent towards all the tested species. In absence of precise chemical analysis from the WWTP, we can only hypothesize that the toxicity of the E<sub>1</sub> could be due, at least partially, to azo dyes used in the production line of this industry and probably present in their native or modified forms in the effluent released. In fact, azo dyes and/or their derivatives were reported by several authors to be genotoxic, mutagenic (Ben Mansour et al. [2009a](#), [b](#), [c](#), [2011](#)), teratogenic (Chen [2006](#)) and also carcinogenic (Moller and Wallin [2000](#); Moawad et al. [2003](#); Umbuzeiro et al. [2005](#)).

The toxicity and risk assessment by means of the synthetic index pointed out an extreme hazard associated to this effluent. It is interesting to note that the same index applied to spent dye baths (with higher dye concentration) showed a lower risk (Tigini et al. [2011](#)). This is mainly due to the higher relevance (90 %) and the consistency (13 %) of the present tests. Actually, a high consistency indicates the agreement rate among different endpoints.

Since the output of ecotoxicity tests were elaborated in different manners according to the performed procedures, the variation of the toxicity due to the treatments of activated sludge (E<sub>2</sub>) and *P. putida* (E<sub>3</sub>) with respect to the untreated effluent (E<sub>1</sub>) was expressed in different ways, depending on the organism. The variation of toxicity detected by tests performed using samples without dilution was expressed as variation of the endpoint inhibition at 100 % sample dose. On the contrary, for tests performed with diluted samples, the toxicity variation was expressed as variation of TU (Table [4](#)).

Table 4

Toxicity variation after the treatment with activated sludge (E<sub>2</sub>) and *P. putida* (E<sub>3</sub>)

	Variation of E <sub>2</sub> with respect to E <sub>1</sub> (effect of activated sludge) (%)	Variation of E <sub>3</sub> with respect to E <sub>2</sub> (effect of <i>P. putida</i> treatment) (%)	Variation of E <sub>3</sub> with respect to E <sub>1</sub> (effect comprehensive treatment) (%)
<i>L. minor</i> frond number inhibition at 100 % dose	−38	1	−37
<i>L. minor</i> biomass development inhibition at 100 % dose	−81	−100	−100
<i>L. sativum</i> root elongation inhibition at 100 % dose	−9	0	−9
<i>L. sativum</i> germination inhibition at 100 % dose	−80	−13	−83

	Variation of E <sub>2</sub> with respect to E <sub>1</sub> (effect of activated sludge) (%)	Variation of E <sub>3</sub> with respect to E <sub>2</sub> (effect of <i>P. putida</i> treatment) (%)	Variation of E <sub>3</sub> with respect to E <sub>1</sub> (effect comprehensive treatment) (%)
<i>C. sativus</i> root elongation inhibition at 100 % dose	–20	–4	–23
<i>C. sativus</i> germination inhibition at 100 % dose	–50	12	–44
<i>D. magna</i> (TU)	–100	2	–98
<i>A. franciscana</i> (TU)	–84	–100	–100
<i>V. fischeri</i> ( TU)	–100	12	–63
<i>P. subcapitata</i> (TU)	–81	–45	–90

The activated sludge used in these experiments exhibited almost always a high detoxification power, from 9 % (*L. sativum*) to 100 % (*D. magna* and *V. fischeri*), compared to E<sub>1</sub>: six out of ten endpoints indicated a toxicity reduction higher than 80 %. Three out of ten endpoints indicated a toxicity reduction between 20 and 50 %. This is confirmed by the positive value of the consistency and the relevance of the test battery. The activated sludge treatment decreased the risk associated to the textile effluent; actually, the BRS of E<sub>2</sub> was lower than E<sub>1</sub>. This result is a consistent indicator of the detoxifying capacity of the tested activated sludge, which is in accordance with the literature, which indicated that activated sludge is effective in reducing textile effluent toxicity (Anastasi et al. [2012](#); Giorgetti et al. [2011](#); Araújo et al. [2005](#)). The ecotoxicity decrease was proportional to the decrease of chemical parameter (pH, COD and BOD), confirming the effectiveness of bioremediation power of the activated sludge.

As *P. putida* was proved to be efficient in detoxifying textile effluents containing azo dyes or their derivatives (Ben Mansour et al. [2011](#)), we applied this treatment after that with activated sludge, which resulted in effluent E<sub>3</sub>. The toxicity variation due to *P. putida* treatment with respect to the activated sludge showed that the additional treatment with *P. putida* caused a toxicity variation between +12 % (*C. sativus*) and –100 % (*L. minor* and *A. franciscana*). Five out of ten endpoints showed unchanged or increased toxicity with respect to E<sub>2</sub>, whereas the other five endpoints showed a decrease of the toxicity. Thus, in this case, *P. putida* does not seem to improve the water quality of the wastewater. This is confirmed also by the chemical analyses, which pointed out an increase of COD and BOD. Despite the toxicity recorded by the single tests never returned at the level of E<sub>1</sub> (Table [4](#)), the synthetic index showed the same toxicity and risk score, which characterized the initial condition of E<sub>1</sub> effluent. The study of metabolites resulting from the biodegradation process with *P. putida* could give elements to understand the toxicity increase obtained when using this process.

## Sensitivity of different organisms

Among the organisms tested towards non-diluted effluents, *L. sativum* was the most sensitive organism towards the three effluents (considering the root elongation as endpoint). Only in two cases, *C. sativus* was more sensitive, even if not significantly, than *L. sativum* (seed germination against E<sub>2</sub> and E<sub>3</sub>).

Among the organisms tested towards non-diluted effluents, *D. magna* was the most sensitive towards E<sub>1</sub> toxicity, *R. subcapitata* was the most sensitive towards E<sub>2</sub>, and *V. fischeri* was the most sensitive towards E<sub>3</sub>; it is not easy to understand the reason why these organisms recorded a sensitivity change after the two treatments. This phenomenon should be ascribed to change in effluent composition due to the biodegradation by activated sludge and *P. putida*, which can produce metabolites with different toxic effect towards the test organisms. We should also hypothesize that enzymes excreted by *P. putida* may break *V. fischeri* membrane, and this induces bacteria cell death (Filloux [2004](#)). In fact, Jayammal and Sivakumar ([2013](#)) reported better antibacterial activity of *Pseudomonas* species than some synthetic antibiotics, against different microorganisms such as *Vibrio* species.

*D. magna* test has been pointed out as particularly sensitive to surfactants (Tigini et al. [2011](#)). On the contrary, the alga was reported to be sensitive to dye pollution (Chapman [2000](#); Whitehouse [2001](#); Novotný et al. [2006](#); Tigini et al. [2011](#)).

*L. minor* and *V. fischeri* exhibited low sensitivity towards tested wastewaters. The results about *L. minor* are in accordance with previous studies (Cleuvers and Ratte [2002](#); MacRae [2003](#); Marinho-Soriano et al. [2011](#); Tigini et al. [2011](#)) which reported that *L. minor* is not or weakly sensitive to this kind of effluents in spite of the high toxicity levels of these latter.

However, a characterization of the chemical composition of the three samples may add important informations to the comprehension of their behaviour, as far as we have not enough indications about the variability of samples. In fact, only COD, BOD, pH and conductivity were determined. Thus, we cannot draw a general conclusion about the relevance of treatment efficiency versus sample variability.

## Conclusion

This study revealed that the analyzed activated sludge was able not only just to decolourize textile wastewater, but also to significantly detoxify it. For that, we used a battery of organisms previously reported to be highly sensitive in detecting wastewater toxicity. Further treatment with *P. putida* does not improve the quality of the effluent, but it increases its toxicity, indicating that the bacterium should be active in the transformation of some effluent components. A possible application of this treatment before inoculating the activated sludge could be investigated in order to achieve a complete bioremediation of the effluent. In fact, the efficiency of such process was established by Anastasi et al. ([2012](#)), who have reported that a fungal step treatment followed by a sludge treatment of textile wastewaters exhibits better detoxifying effect.

This study confirms that *D. magna* and *R. subcapitata* can be good indicators for textile wastewater toxicity comparing with *A. franciscana* and *L. minor*.

## Acknowledgments

The authors acknowledge the 'Ministère de l'Enseignement Supérieur, de la Recherche Scientifique et des Technologies de l'Information et de la Communication' and 'la société industrielle de textile' (SITEX). Special thanks goes to Dr. Pietro Giansanti and Arpa Piemonte, Dipartimento di Torino, Laboratorio di Ecotossicologia e Mutagenesi, via Sabaudia, 164-10095 Grugliasco (TO), for allowing us to use the synthetic index for ecotoxicological risk assessment.

# Appendix

Table 5

Culture media for *R. subcapitata*, *L. minor* and *D. magna*

Ecotoxicity test	Culture media (mg/L)
	NH <sub>4</sub> Cl (15); MgCl <sub>2</sub> · 6H <sub>2</sub> O (12); CaCl <sub>2</sub> · 2H <sub>2</sub> O(18); MgSO <sub>4</sub> · 7H <sub>2</sub> O (15); KH <sub>2</sub> PO <sub>4</sub> (1.6)
<i>R. subcapitata</i> test	FeCl <sub>3</sub> 6H <sub>2</sub> O (0.064); Na <sub>2</sub> EDTA · 2H <sub>2</sub> O (0.1) H <sub>3</sub> BO <sub>3</sub> (0.185); MnCl <sub>2</sub> · 4H <sub>2</sub> O (0.415); ZnCl <sub>2</sub> (0.003); CoCl <sub>2</sub> · 6H <sub>2</sub> O (0,0015); CuCl <sub>2</sub> · 2H <sub>2</sub> O (0.00001); Na <sub>2</sub> MoO <sub>4</sub> · 2H <sub>2</sub> O (0.007) NaHCO <sub>3</sub> (0.050) Modified Steinberg solution
<i>L. minor</i> test	KH <sub>2</sub> PO <sub>4</sub> (90); KNO <sub>3</sub> (350); K <sub>2</sub> HPO <sub>4</sub> (12.6); MgSO <sub>4</sub> · 7H <sub>2</sub> O (100); Ca(NO <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> 4H <sub>2</sub> O (295); MnCl <sub>2</sub> · 4H <sub>2</sub> O (0.18); H <sub>3</sub> BO <sub>3</sub> (0.12); Na <sub>2</sub> MoO <sub>4</sub> · 2H <sub>2</sub> O (0.044); ZnSO <sub>4</sub> · 7H <sub>2</sub> O (0.18); FeCl <sub>3</sub> 6H <sub>2</sub> O (0.76); Na <sub>2</sub> EDTA · 2H <sub>2</sub> O (100) Standard culture media
<i>D. magna</i> test	CaCl <sub>2</sub> · 2H <sub>2</sub> O (195.87); MgSO <sub>4</sub> · 7H <sub>2</sub> O (82.20); NaHCO <sub>3</sub> (64.80); KCl (5.80); Na <sub>2</sub> SeO <sub>3</sub> (0.002)

## References

1. Anastasi A, Spina F, Romagnolo A, Tigini V, Prigione V, Varese GC (2012) Integrated fungal biomass and activated sludge treatment for textile wastewaters bioremediation. *Bioresour Technol* 123:106–111
2. Araújo CVM, Nascimento RB, Oliveira CA, Strotmann UJ, da Silva EM (2005) The use of Microtox® to assess toxicity removal of industrial effluents from the industrial district of Camaçari (BA, Brazil). *Chemosphere* 58:1277–1281
3. Banat IM, Nigam P, Singh D, Marchant R (1996) Microbial decolorization of textile-dye-containing effluents: a review. *Bioresour Technol* 58:217–227
4. Ben Mansour H, Mosrati R, Correler D, Bariller D, Ghedira K, Bariller D, Chekir L (2009a) *In vitro* study of DNA damage induced by acid orange 52 and its biodegradation derivatives. *Environ Toxicol Chem* 28:489–495
5. Ben Mansour H, Bariller D, Correler D, Ghedira K, Chekir L, Mosrati R (2009b) *In vitro* mutagenicity of acid violet 7 and its degradation products by *Pseudomonas putida* mt-2: correlation with chemical structure. *Environ Toxicol Pharmacol* 27:231–236
6. Ben Mansour H, Mosrati R, Corroler D, Ghedira K, Bariller D, Chekir L (2009c) Genotoxic and anti-butyrylcholinesterasic activities of acid violet 7 and its biodegradation products. *Drug Chem Toxicol* 32:230–237
7. Ben Mansour H, Ghedira K, Bariller D, Chekir L, Mosrati R (2011) Degradation and detoxification of acid orange 52 by *Pseudomonas putida* mt-2: a laboratory study. *Environ Sci Pollut Res Int*.



8. Ben Mansour H, Houas I, Montassar F, Ghedira K, Bariller D, Mosrati R, Chekir L (2012) Alteration of *in vitro* and acute *in vivo* toxicity of textile dyeing wastewater after chemical and biological remediation. *Environ Sci Pollut Res Int* 19:2634–2643
9. Ben Mansour H, Mnif W, Amira D, Mosrati R, Chekir-Gheddia L (2013) Inhibition of seed germination and seedling growth of *Triticum aestivum* L. by industrial wastewaters. *IJETM* 16:3
10. Casieri L, Varese GC, Anastasi A, Prigione V, Svobodová K, Filipello Marchisio V, Novotný Č (2008) Decolorization and detoxication of reactive industrial dyes by immobilized fungi *Tramete spubescens* and *Pleurotus ostreatus*. *Folia Microbiol* 53:44–52
11. Chapman PM (2000) Whole effluent toxicity testing usefulness, level of protection, and risk assessment. *Environ Toxicol Chem* 19:3–13
12. Chen BY (2006) Toxicity assessment of aromatic amines to *Pseudomonas luteola*: chemostat pulse technique and dose-response analysis. *Process Biochem* 41:1529–1538
13. Cleuvers M, Ratte HT (2002) Phytotoxicity of coloured substances: is *Lemna* Duckweed an alternative to the algal growth inhibition test? *Chemosphere* 49:9–15
14. da Silva MER, Firmino PIM, de Sousa MR, dos Santos AB (2012) Sequential anaerobic/aerobic treatment of dye-containing wastewaters: colour and COD removals, and ecotoxicity tests. *Appl Biochem Biotechnol* 166:1057–1069
15. De Schepper W, Dries J, Geuens L, Blust R (2010) Wastewater treatment plant modeling supported toxicity identification and evaluation of a tank truck cleaning effluent. *Ecotoxicol Environ Saf* 73:702–709
16. Dogruel S, Genceli EA, Babuna FG, Orhon D (2006) An investigation on the optimal location of ozonation within biological treatment for a tannery wastewater. *J Chem Technol Biotechnol* 81:1877–1885
17. ECOTOXICOLOGICAL METHOD 8060 by ARPA-IRSA (2003) ARTOXKIT<sup>MTM</sup> 24h microbiotest for toxicity screening of pure compounds—contaminated seawater and estuarine/marine sediments—effluents/wastes released in estuaries or coastal waters—biotoxins
18. Filloux A (2004) The underlying mechanisms of type II protein secretion. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1694:163–179
19. Giorgetti L, Talouizte H, Merzouki M, Caltavuturo L, Geri C, Frassinetti S (2011) Genotoxicity evaluation of effluents from textile industries of the region Fez-Boulmane, Morocco: a case study. *Ecotoxicol Environ Saf* 74:2275–2283
20. ISO (International Standards Organization) (2001) Water quality-Duckweed growth inhibition; determination of the toxic effect of water constituents and waste water to Duckweed (*Lemna minor*) ISO/WD 20079
21. ISO (International Standards Organization) (2003) Water quality—determination of the inhibition of germination and elongation radical in *Cucumis sativus* L. (cucumber), *Lepidium sativum* L. (cress), *saccharatum* Moench *Sorghum* 1651:2003
22. ISO (International Standards Organization) (2005) Water quality—fresh water algal growth inhibition test with unicellular green algae 8692:2005
23. ISO (International Standards Organization) (2007) Water quality—determination of the inhibitory effect of water samples on the light emission of *Vibrio fischeri* (Luminescent bacteria test) ISO 11348:3:2007
24. ISO (International Standards Organization) (2012) Water quality—determination of the inhibition of the mobility of *Daphnia magna* Straus (Cladocera, Crustacea)—acute toxicity test 6341:2012
25. Jadhav JP, Parshetti GK, Kalme SD, Govindwar SP (2007) Decolourization of azo dye methyl red by *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* MTCC 463. *Chemosphere* 68:394–400

26. Jayammal D, Sivakumar T (2013) Antibacterial activity of protein extract of marine *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* against bacterial pathogens. *Int J Curr Microbiol App Sci* 2(7):207–216
27. Libralato G, Volpi Ghirardini A, Avezzù F (2010) How toxic is toxic? A proposal for wastewater toxicity hazard assessment. *Ecotoxicol Environ Saf* 73:1602–1611
28. Lofrano G, Meriç S, Zengin GE, Orhon D (2013) Chemical and biological treatment technologies for leather tannery chemicals and wastewaters: a review. *Sci Total Environ* 461–462:265–281
29. MacRae TH (2003) Molecular chaperones, stress resistance and development in *Artemia franciscana*. *Semin Cell Dev Biol* 14:251–258
30. Malachová K, Rybkova Z, Sezimová H, Cerven J, Novotný Č (2013) Biodegradation and detoxification potential of rotating biological contactor (RBC) with *Irpex lacteus* for remediation of dye-containing wastewater. *Water Res* 47:7143–7148
31. Marinho-Soriano E, Azevedo CAA, Trigueiro TG, Pereira DC, Carneiro MAA, Camara MR (2011) Bioremediation of aquaculture wastewater using macroalgae and *Artemia*. *Int Biodeterior Biodegr* 65:253–257
32. Matthews RS (1995) *Artemia salina* as a test organism for measuring superoxide mediated toxicity. *Free Radic Biol Med* 18:919–922
33. Moawad H, Abd El-Rahim WM, Khalafallah M (2003) Evaluation of biotoxicity of textile dyes using two bioassays. *J Basic Microbiol* 43:218–229
34. Moller P, Wallin H (2000) Genotoxic hazards of azo pigments and other colorants related to 1-phenylazo-2-hydroxynaphthalene. *Mutat Res* 462:13–30
35. Novotný Č, Dias N, Kapanen A, Malachová K, Vándrovcová M, Itävaara M, Lima N (2006) Comparative use of bacterial, algal and protozoan tests to study toxicity of azo- and anthraquinone dyes. *Chemosphere* 63:1436–1442
36. O'Neill C, Lopez A, Esteves S, Hawkes FR, Hawkes DL, Wilcox S (2000) Azo-dye degradation in an anaerobic/aerobic treatment system operating on simulating textile effluent. *Appl Microbiol Biotechnol* 53:249–254
37. Phugare SS, Kalyani C, Surwase SN, Jadhav JP (2011) Ecofriendly degradation, decolorization and detoxification of textile effluent by a developed bacterial consortium. *Ecotoxicol Environ Saf* 74(1):288–1296
38. Robinson T, McMullan G, Marchant R, Nigam P (2001) Remediation of dyes in textile effluent: a critical review on current treatment technologies with a proposed alternative. *Bioresour Technol* 77:247–255
39. Silveira E, Marques PP, Silva SS, Lima-Filho JL, Porto ALF, Tambourgi EB (2009) Selection of *Pseudomonas* for industrial textile dyes decolourisation. *Int Biodeterior Biodegr* 63:230–235
40. Société Industrielle de Textile (SITEX) (2012) Avenue Habib BOURGUIBA 5070, MONASTIR KSAR HELLAL, Tunisie
41. Sponza DT (2002) Necessity of toxicity assessment in Turkish industrial discharges (examples from metal and textile industry effluents). *Environ Monit Assess* 73:41–66
42. Tigini V, Giansanti P, Mangiavillano A, Pannicchia A, Varese GC (2011) Evaluation of toxicity, genotoxicity and environmental risk of simulated textile and tannery wastewaters with a battery of biotests. *Ecotoxicol Environ Saf* 74:866–873
43. UNICHIM N. 1651 (2003) Water quality - determination of inhibition of germination and root elongation in *Cucumis sativus* L. (cucumber), *Lepidium sativum* L. (cress), *saccharatum* Moench *Sorghum* (Sorghum) (Essay chronic toxicity short)
44. Umbuzeiro GD, Freeman HS, Warren SH, Palma de Oliveira D, Terao Y, Watanabe T, Claxton LD (2005) The contribution of azo dyes to the mutagenic activity of the Cristais River. *Chemosphere* 60:55–64

45. Verma Y (2008) Acute toxicity assessment of textile dyes and textile and dye industrial effluents using *Daphnia magna* bioassay. Toxicol Ind Health 24:491–500
46. Whitehouse P (2001) Measures for protecting water quality: current approaches and future developments. Ecotoxicol Environ Saf 50:115–126